

Euler constants for arithmetical progressions

by

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*Dedicated to the memory of Yu. V. Linnik***1. Introduction.** Euler's constant γ is defined by

$$\gamma = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{m} - \log m \right\} = .5772156649.$$

In this paper we study the properties of the corresponding limit $\gamma(r, k)$ obtained by considering the sum of the reciprocals of the terms of the arithmetic progression

$$r, r+k, r+2k, \dots \quad (0 < r \leq k).$$

In § 2, $\gamma(r, k)$ is defined precisely and shown to exist. In § 3 we show that $\gamma(r, k)$ differs from γ/k by a linear combination of logarithms of cyclotomic integers in the field of k th roots of unity. From this a formula for $\gamma(r, k)$ involving only real numbers is deduced and specialized for certain small k . In § 4 a study is made of the $\varphi(k)$ primitive $\gamma(r, k)$ in which r and k are coprime. In § 5 the connection is made between $\gamma(r, k)$ and the logarithmic derivative ψ of the Gamma function at the point r/k . The results of § 3 are now seen to give a really elementary proof of Gauss' theorem on $\psi(z)$ for rational z . In § 6 we make applications of $\gamma(r, k)$ to certain infinite series. In particular we develop the connection between $\gamma(r, k)$ and the class number of the quadratic fields $Q(\sqrt{\pm k})$. The final § 7 contains some comments on the numerical evaluation of $\gamma(r, k)$.

2. Definition and existence of $\gamma(r, k)$. We denote by $H(x, r, k)$ the general harmonic sum associated with the arithmetical progression $r, r+k, r+2k, \dots$ namely

$$H(x, r, k) = \sum_{\substack{0 < n \leq x \\ n \equiv r \pmod{k}}} \frac{1}{n}.$$

By this definition

$$H(x, r \pm k, k) = H(x, r, k).$$

We now define $\gamma(r, k)$ by

$$(1) \quad \gamma(r, k) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ H(x, r, k) - \frac{1}{k} \log x \right\},$$

so that

$$\gamma(0, 1) = \gamma.$$

Also

$$\gamma(r \pm k, k) = \gamma(r, k).$$

In other words, $\gamma(r, k)$ is a periodic function of r of period k .

Since

$$H(x, 0, k) = \frac{1}{k} H\left(\frac{x}{k}, 0, 1\right),$$

$$\gamma(0, k) = \frac{1}{k} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ H\left(\frac{x}{k}, 0, 1\right) - \log \frac{x}{k} \right\} - (\log k)/k$$

or

$$(2) \quad \gamma(0, k) = (\gamma - \log k)/k.$$

To see that $\gamma(r, k)$ exists for $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ we can note that, for $0 < r < k$,

$$U_n = \frac{1}{r+nk} - \frac{1}{k} \log \frac{r+(n+1)k}{r+nk} = \int_0^1 \frac{kt}{(r+nk)(r+nk+t)} dt = O(n^{-2}).$$

Hence the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^{\lfloor x/k \rfloor} U_n = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ H(x, r, k) - \frac{1}{k} \log x \right\}$$

converges to a limit which we call $\gamma(r, k)$.

From the definition (1) we see that

$$(3) \quad \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} \gamma(r, k) = \gamma$$

and more generally

$$(4) \quad \sum_{\lambda=0}^{k-1} \gamma(r + \lambda m, mk) = \gamma(r, k).$$

In particular ($m = 2$) we have

$$(5) \quad \gamma(r, 2k) + \gamma(r+k, 2k) = \gamma(r, k).$$

Also from the definition, $\gamma(r, k)$ is a strictly decreasing function of r . More precisely

$$\gamma(1, k) > \gamma(2, k) > \dots > \gamma(k-1, k) > \gamma(k, k) = \gamma(0, k).$$

3. A closed form for $\gamma(r, k)$. We begin with

THEOREM 1. For $k > 1$,

$$(6) \quad k\gamma(r, k) = \gamma - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} e^{-2\pi r ij/k} \log(1 - e^{2\pi ij/k}).$$

Proof. For $r = 0$ this is easy. The right hand side of (6) becomes

$$\gamma - \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \log(1 - e^{2\pi ij/k}) = \gamma - \log \left\{ \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} (1 - e^{2\pi ij/k}) \right\} = \gamma - \log F(1)$$

where

$$F(x) = \prod_{j=1}^{k-1} (x - e^{2\pi ij/k}) = \frac{x^k - 1}{x - 1}.$$

Since $F(1) = k$, the theorem for $r = 0$ now follows from (2).

Suppose now that $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}$. For simplicity we write ε for $e^{2\pi i/k}$. Consider the finite Fourier series generated by $\gamma(r, k)$ namely

$$(7) \quad \sigma_j = \sum_{\lambda=0}^{k-1} \gamma(\lambda, k) \varepsilon^{\lambda j}.$$

By (3),

$$\sigma_0 = \gamma.$$

When $j \neq 0$

$$\sigma_j = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \sum_{\lambda=0}^{k-1} \left(H(x, \lambda, k) - \frac{1}{k} \log x \right) \varepsilon^{\lambda j} \right\}.$$

Since

$$(8) \quad \sum_{\lambda=0}^{k-1} \varepsilon^{\lambda j} = 0,$$

we have

$$(9) \quad \sigma_j = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{\lambda=0}^{k-1} H(x, \lambda, k) \varepsilon^{\lambda j} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon^{jn}}{n} = -\log(1 - \varepsilon^j).$$

Multiplying both members of (7) by ε^{-jr} and summing over j gives us

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \sigma_j \varepsilon^{-jr} = \sum_{\lambda=0}^{k-1} \gamma(\lambda, k) \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \varepsilon^{j(\lambda-r)} = k\gamma(r, k)$$

in view of (8). Substituting for σ_j from (9) gives the theorem.

The simplest instances of Theorem 1 are for $k = 2$. In this case $1 - e^{2\pi i j/k} = 2$ so that we have

$$\begin{aligned}\gamma(0, 2) &= \frac{1}{2}(\gamma - \log 2) = -0.05797\dots, \\ \gamma(1, 2) &= \frac{1}{2}(\gamma + \log 2) = .63518\dots\end{aligned}$$

These results also follow at once from (3) and (2). For $k > 2$ the terms of the sum in (6) become complex. Since $\gamma(r, k)$ is real we can replace the sum by its real part. However, this leaves something to be desired, namely a simplification using real logarithms. To achieve this we prepare

LEMMA A.

$$\begin{aligned}(a) \quad \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \sin \frac{2\pi rj}{k} &= 0, \\ (b) \quad \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \cos \frac{2\pi rj}{k} &= 0 \quad \text{if} \quad r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}, \\ (c) \quad \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} j \sin \frac{2\pi rj}{k} &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if} \quad r \equiv 0 \pmod{k}, \\ -\frac{k}{2} \cot \frac{\pi r}{k} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

Proof. The well known sums (a) and (b) are the imaginary and real parts of the geometric progression sum

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} e^{2\pi i rj/k} = (e^{2\pi ir} - 1)/(e^{2\pi ir/k} - 1) = 0.$$

One way to prove (c) is via the identity

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} ju^j = (1-u)^{-2} \{ku^k(u-1) - u(u^k-1)\}$$

which is established by an easy induction on k . When u is a k th root of unity ($\neq 1$) this becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} ju^j &= -\frac{k}{1-u}, \\ \text{or} \\ \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} j(u^j - u^{-j}) &= -k \frac{1+u}{1-u}.\end{aligned}$$

For $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ and $u = e^r$ this becomes

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \sin \frac{2\pi rj}{k} = \frac{1}{2i} (-k) \frac{1+e^r}{1-e^r} = -\frac{k}{2} \cot \frac{\pi r}{k}.$$

This is (c).

We return now to the sum in Theorem 1. We may assume that $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}$. Next we observe that

$$1 - e^j = -2i e^{\pi i j/k} \sin \frac{\pi j}{k}$$

so that

$$\log(1 - e^j) = \log 2 + \log \sin \frac{\pi j}{k} + \frac{\pi i}{2k} (2j - k)$$

and

$$e^{-rj} = \cos \frac{2\pi rj}{k} - i \sin \frac{2\pi rj}{k}.$$

Hence Theorem 1 is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned}(10) \quad \gamma - k\gamma(r, k) &= \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} e^{-rj} \log(1 - e^j) \right\} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \log \left(2 \sin \frac{\pi j}{k} \right) \cos \frac{2\pi rj}{k} + \frac{\pi}{2k} \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} (2j - k) \sin \frac{2\pi rj}{k}.\end{aligned}$$

Applying Lemma A (a) and (c) to the second sum reduces it to

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} \cot \frac{\pi r}{k}.$$

By (b) the first sum in (10) is equal to

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \left\{ \cos \frac{2\pi rj}{k} \log \sin \frac{\pi j}{k} \right\} - \log 2.$$

In this sum the terms corresponding to j and $k-j$ are equal and when $j = k-j$ the term is zero. Hence we can finally write, when $r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}$,

$$(11) \quad k\gamma(r, k) = \gamma + \log 2 + \frac{\pi}{2} \cot \frac{\pi r}{k} - 2 \sum_{0 < j < k/2} \cos \frac{2\pi rj}{k} \log \sin \frac{\pi j}{k}.$$

One useful and immediate consequence of (11) is the formula

$$(12) \quad \gamma(k-r, k) = \gamma(r, k) - \frac{\pi}{k} \cot \frac{\pi r}{k} \quad (r \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}).$$

Of course (11) can be further simplified when k is a specific small integer. This matter will be discussed at the end of the next section.

4. Primitive $\gamma(r, k)$. When r and k are coprime we call $\gamma(r, k)$ *primitive*, otherwise *imprimitive*. It is clear that if $\gamma(r, k)$ is imprimitive it must be related to some $\gamma(r_1, k_1)$ with $k_1 < k$. More precisely we have

THEOREM 2. Let δ be any common divisor of r and k . Then

$$(13) \quad \gamma(r, k) = \frac{1}{\delta} \gamma(r/\delta, k/\delta) - \frac{1}{k} \log \delta.$$

Remark. In case δ is the greatest common divisor (r, k) of r and k then $\gamma(r/\delta, k/\delta)$ is primitive. In case $r = 0$ then (13) becomes (2).

Proof. Let $r_1 = r/\delta$ and $k_1 = k/\delta$. Then

$$H(x, r, k) = \frac{1}{\delta} H(x/\delta, r_1, k_1)$$

and so

$$H(x, r, k) - \frac{1}{k} \log x = \frac{1}{\delta} \left\{ H(x/\delta, r_1, k_1) - \frac{1}{k_1} \log x/\delta \right\} - \frac{1}{k} \log \delta.$$

Letting $x \rightarrow \infty$ gives the theorem.

We now consider the sum of all the $\varphi(k)$ primitive $\gamma(r, k)$ where k is fixed. We denote the sum by

$$\Phi(k) = \sum_{(r, k)=1} \gamma(r, k).$$

We derive an explicit formula for $\Phi(k)$, which depends on the prime factors of k , in a succession of three theorems. The first is

THEOREM 3. There exists a rational number N_k such that

$$k\Phi(k) = \varphi(k)\gamma + \log N_k.$$

Proof. The theorem is true for $k = 1$ with $N_1 = 1$. Supposing the theorem holds for all the proper divisors of k . We can then write, in view of (3)

$$\Phi(k) = \gamma - \sum_{\delta|k} \sum_{(r, k)=\delta} \gamma(r, k).$$

Applying Theorem 2 we have

$$\begin{aligned} -k(\Phi(k) - \gamma) &= \sum_{\delta|k} \sum_{(r, k)=\delta} k \left\{ \frac{1}{\delta} \gamma\left(\frac{r}{\delta}, \frac{k}{\delta}\right) - \frac{1}{k} \log \delta \right\} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{\delta|k \\ \delta>1}} \left\{ \frac{k}{\delta} \Phi\left(\frac{k}{\delta}\right) - \Phi\left(\frac{k}{\delta}\right) \log \delta \right\} \\ &= \sum_{\substack{d|k \\ d<k}} d\Phi(d) - \sum_{\substack{d|k \\ d<k}} \varphi(d) \log(k/d) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{d|k \\ d<k}} \{\varphi(d)\gamma + \log N_d\} - \log k \sum_{\substack{d|k \\ d<k}} \varphi(d) + \sum_{\substack{d|k \\ d<k}} \varphi(d) \log d. \end{aligned}$$

Here we have used our induction hypothesis. Since

$$\sum_{d|k} \varphi(d) = k$$

we have

$$(14) \quad k\Phi(k) - \varphi(k)\gamma = k \log k - \sum_{d|k} \varphi(d) \log d - \sum_{d|k} \log N_d.$$

Now the right hand side is evidently the logarithm of some rational number. Call it N_k since it depends only on k . This proves Theorem 3.

THEOREM 4. The N_k of Theorem 3 is given by

$$N_k = \prod_{\delta|k} \delta^{-k\mu(\delta)/\delta}$$

where μ is Möbius' function.

Proof. Let the numerical function f be defined by

$$f(k) = \sum_{\delta|k} \log N_\delta.$$

Then (14) can be written in view of Theorem 3,

$$k \log k - f(k) = \sum_{\delta|k} \varphi(\delta) \log \delta.$$

By Möbius inversion

$$\varphi(k) \log k = \sum_{\delta|k} \delta \log \delta \mu(k/\delta) - \sum_{\delta|k} f(\delta) \mu(k/\delta).$$

Again by Möbius inversion the second sum is simply $\log N_k$. Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \log N_k &= \sum_{\delta|k} \delta \log \delta \mu(k/\delta) - \log k \sum_{\delta|k} (k/\delta) \mu(k/\delta) \\ &= \sum_{\delta|k} \mu(\delta) \frac{k}{\delta} (\log k - \log \delta) - k \log k \sum_{\delta|k} \mu(\delta)/\delta \\ &= -k \sum_{\delta|k} (\mu(\delta)/\delta) \log \delta. \end{aligned}$$

Taking exponentials gives the theorem.

THEOREM 5. N_k is, in fact, the integer

$$N_k = \prod_{p|k} p^{\varphi(k)/(p-1)}$$

where p ranges over the prime factors of k .

Proof. By Theorem 4 it is clear that N_k is the product of powers (positive, zero or negative) of the prime factors of k . Let p be any one of these primes and let

$$k = p^a m \quad (p \nmid m), \\ N_k = p^b n \quad (p \nmid n).$$

We must show that

$$(15) \quad \beta = \varphi(k)/(p-1).$$

Any δ dividing k is of the form $\delta = p^i d$ where $d \mid m$. By Theorem 4

$$\beta = - \sum_{d \mid m} \sum_{j=0}^a j m p^{a-j} \mu(p^j) \mu(d)/d.$$

It is clear that we must take $j = 1$ to get any contribution to β . Hence

$$\beta = p^{a-1} \sum_{d \mid m} \frac{m}{d} \mu(d) = p^{a-1} \varphi(m) = \varphi(p^a) \varphi(m)/(p-1) = \varphi(k)/(p-1)$$

which is (15).

Theorems 3 and 5 now yield

$$(16) \quad \Phi(k) = \frac{\varphi(k)}{k} \left(\gamma + \sum_{p \mid k} \frac{\log p}{p-1} \right).$$

As one consequence of (16), $\Phi(k)$ depends only on the prime factors of k . In fact if δ is a divisor of k then $\Phi(\delta k) = \Phi(k)$. As another application of (16) we have

THEOREM 6. If $k > 1$

$$2 \sum_{0 < j < k/2} \frac{\mu(k/(k, j))}{\varphi(k/(k, j))} \log \sin \frac{\pi j}{k} = \log 2 - \sum_{p \mid k} \frac{\log p}{p-1}.$$

Proof. If we sum both sides of (11) over the $\varphi(k)$ numbers r which are $< k$ and prime to k we obtain

$$k\Phi(k) = (\gamma + \log 2)\varphi(k) - \sum_{0 < j < k/2} \log \sin \frac{\pi j}{k} \sum_{(r, k)=1} 2 \cos \frac{2\pi r j}{k}$$

since the cotangent terms for r and $k-r$ destroy themselves.

Now the inner sum is

$$2 \sum_{(r, k)=1} e^{2\pi i j r/k} = 2c_k(j) = 2\varphi(k) \frac{\mu(k/(k, j))}{\varphi(k/(k, j))}$$

which is a well-known formula of Hölder for the Ramanujan sum $c_k(j)$ [5]. Substituting for $\Phi(k)$ from (16) and simplifying gives the theorem.

In case $k = p$, a prime, Theorem 6 becomes the familiar result

$$\prod_{r=1}^{p-1} 2 \sin \frac{\pi r}{p} = p.$$

Theorem 6 is an instance of the catalytic effect of the Euler constants $\gamma(r, k)$. Further examples occur in § 6.

It is well-known [8] that the values of the trigonometric functions in formula (11) are algebraic numbers. In case k is a power of 2 times a (possibly empty) product of distinct primes of the form $2^{2^l}+1$ these algebraic numbers are expressible in terms of successive square roots of positive integers, that is they are constructable with ruler and compass.

We give below a condensed list of $\gamma(r, k)$ expressed in this way. To save printing costs we can omit the imprimitive cases by Theorem 2. We can also dispense with the cases in which $k \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ since by (5) and Theorem 2

$$\gamma(2s+1, 4m+2) = \gamma(2s+1, 2m+1) - \frac{1}{2}\gamma(s+m+1, 2m+1) + \frac{\log 2}{4m+2}.$$

Finally we can suppose that $r < k/2$ in view of (12).

5. $\gamma(r, k)$ and $\Gamma'(z)/\Gamma(z)$. From the three familiar basic formulas

$$\Gamma(1+z) = z\Gamma(z),$$

$$\Gamma(z)\Gamma(1-z) = \pi \csc \pi z,$$

$$1/\Gamma(1+z) = e^{\gamma z} \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 + \frac{z}{n} \right) e^{-z/n}$$

for the Gamma function the following well-known properties of its logarithmic derivative $\psi(z) = \Gamma'(z)/\Gamma(z)$ are immediately derived.

$$(17) \quad \psi(1+z) = \psi(z) + 1/z,$$

$$(18) \quad \psi(1-z) = \psi(z) + \pi \cot \pi z,$$

$$(19) \quad \psi(1+z) = -\gamma + z \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+z)} = -\gamma + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (-1)^n \zeta(n) z^{n-1}.$$

The following theorem indicates a connection between $\gamma(r, k)$ and $\psi(z)$ at the rational point r/k .

THEOREM 7.

$$\gamma(r, k) = -\{\psi(r/k) + \log k\}/k \quad (0 < r \leq k).$$

LIST OF CERTAIN CONSTRUCTABLE $\gamma(r, k)$

$$\gamma(1, 2) = \frac{1}{2} \gamma + \frac{1}{2} \log 2,$$

$$\gamma(1, 3) = \frac{1}{3} \gamma + \frac{\pi}{18} \sqrt{3} + \frac{1}{6} \log 3,$$

$$\gamma(1, 4) = \frac{1}{4} \gamma + \frac{\pi}{8} + \frac{1}{4} \log 2,$$

$$\gamma(1, 5) = \frac{1}{5} \gamma + \frac{\pi}{10} \sqrt{1+2/\sqrt{5}} + \frac{1}{20} \log 5 + \frac{\sqrt{5}}{10} \log(1+\sqrt{5})/2,$$

$$\gamma(2, 5) = \frac{1}{5} \gamma + \frac{\pi}{10} \sqrt{1-2/\sqrt{5}} + \frac{1}{20} \log 5 - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{10} \log(1+\sqrt{5})/2,$$

$$\gamma(1, 8) = \frac{1}{8} \gamma + \frac{1}{8} \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} (\sqrt{2}+1) + \log 2 + \sqrt{2} \log(\sqrt{2}+1) \right\},$$

$$\gamma(3, 8) = \frac{1}{8} \gamma + \frac{1}{8} \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} (\sqrt{2}-1) + \log 2 - \sqrt{2} \log(\sqrt{2}+1) \right\},$$

$$\gamma(1, 12) = \frac{1}{12} \gamma + \frac{1}{24} \{ \pi(2+\sqrt{3}) - 2(\sqrt{3}-1) \log 2 + \log 3 + 4\sqrt{3} \log(\sqrt{3}+1) \},$$

$$\gamma(5, 12) = \frac{1}{12} \gamma + \frac{1}{24} \{ \pi(2-\sqrt{3}) + 2(\sqrt{3}+1) \log 2 + \log 3 - 4\sqrt{3} \log(\sqrt{3}+1) \}.$$

The small Table 1 giving $\gamma(r, k)$ to 6D for all r and for $k < 10$ may be helpful in checking formulas and in applications.

Table 1

r	k	$\gamma(r, k)$	r	k	$\gamma(r, k)$	r	k	$\gamma(r, k)$
1	1	.577216	1	6	.756728	3	8	.084320
1	2	.635182	2	6	.223379	4	8	-.014491
2	2	-.057966	3	6	.028625	5	8	-.078342
1	3	.677807	4	6	-.078921	6	8	-.124198
2	3	.073207	5	6	-.150172	7	8	-.159428
3	3	-.173799	6	6	-.202424	8	8	-.187778
1	4	.710290	1	7	.774010	1	9	.801191
2	4	.144304	2	7	.248515	2	9	.284890
3	4	-.075108	3	7	.059987	3	9	.103868
4	4	-.202270	4	7	-.042448	4	9	.007727
1	5	.735920	5	7	-.109390	5	9	-.053823
2	5	.190389	6	7	-.157931	6	9	-.097666
3	5	-.013764	7	7	-.195528	7	9	-.131110
4	5	-.128886	1	8	.788631	8	9	-.157860
5	5	-.206444	2	8	.268501	9	9	-.180001

Proof. By definition and by (17) and (19)

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma(r, k) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{k+r} + \frac{1}{2k+r} + \dots + \frac{1}{\left[\frac{x}{k} \right] k+r} - \frac{1}{k} \log \frac{x}{k} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{r} + \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{k} - \left(\frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+r} \right) + \dots + \frac{1}{\left[\frac{x}{k} \right] k} - \left(\frac{1}{\left[\frac{x}{k} \right] k} - \frac{1}{\left[\frac{x}{k} \right] k+r} \right) - \right. \\ &\quad \left. - \frac{1}{k} \left(\log \frac{x}{k} + \log k \right) \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{k} \gamma - \frac{\log k}{k} - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{r}{nk(nk+r)} = \frac{1}{k} \left\{ k \gamma - \log k + \gamma - \frac{r}{k} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+r/k)} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{k} \left\{ -\log k + \frac{k}{r} - \psi \left(1 + \frac{r}{k} \right) \right\} = \frac{1}{k} \left\{ -\log k - \psi(r/k) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

which is the theorem.

Solving for $\psi(r/k)$ we find

$$(20) \quad \psi(r/k) = -\{k\gamma(r, k) + \log k\} \quad (0 < r \leq k)$$

which, as we note, holds also for $r = k$.

The results we have already obtained for $\gamma(r, k)$ can now be applied to give information about $\psi(z)$. For example (1) gives us at once

$$\psi(r/k) = -\gamma - \log(k/2) - \frac{\pi}{2} \cot \frac{\pi r}{k} + 2 \sum_{0 < j < k/2} \cos \frac{2\pi r j}{k} \log \sin \frac{\pi j}{k}.$$

This was discovered by Gauss in 1813 [4]. A simplification of Gauss' proof has been given by Jensen [6] using Abel's theorem on the continuity of convergent power series on the circle of convergence. Our proof via finite Fourier series indicates that Gauss' remarkable result has a completely elementary basis. Gauss used this result to produce the first table of $\psi(z)$ for $z = 0(.01)1$. He also pointed out that because of (17) and (18) we can evaluate $\psi(z)$ at any rational point $\neq 0$. For example we have

$$\psi(3/4) = -\gamma + \frac{\pi}{2} - \log 8,$$

$$\psi(7/3) = \frac{15}{4} - \frac{3}{2} \log 3 - \gamma - \frac{\pi\sqrt{3}}{6},$$

$$\psi(-3/2) = \frac{8}{3} - \gamma - \log 4.$$

The relation (3) gives us

$$\sum_{r=1}^{k-1} \psi(r/k) = -\{k \log k + (k-1)\gamma\}$$

while from (18) we obtain

$$\sum_{\substack{r=1 \\ (r,k)=1}}^{k-1} \psi(r/k) = -\varphi(k) \left\{ \gamma + \log k + \sum_{p|k} \frac{\log p}{p-1} \right\}.$$

6. Applications of $\gamma(r, k)$.

As a first application we give

THEOREM 8. Let $g(n)$ be a numerical function which is purely periodic of period k . Then

$$S(g) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g(n)/n = \sum_{r=1}^k g(r) \gamma(r, k)$$

provided $\sum_{r=1}^k g(r) = 0$; which is a necessary and sufficient condition for convergence of $S(g)$.

Proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{1 \leq n \leq x} g(n)/n &= \sum_{r=1}^k g(r) H(x, r, k) \\ &= \sum_{r=1}^k g(r) \left\{ H(x, r, k) - \frac{1}{k} \log x \right\} + \frac{\log x}{k} \sum_{r=1}^k g(r). \end{aligned}$$

As $x \rightarrow \infty$ the first sum tends to $\sum g(r) \gamma(r, k)$. The second sum must vanish for convergence.

Theorem 8 can be used to evaluate $S(g)$ in terms of the $\gamma(r, k)$ or inversely, when $S(g)$ is known, to obtain interesting linear combinations of the $\gamma(r, k)$. To illustrate the latter use we can choose $g(n) = \varepsilon^{nj}$ where $j \not\equiv 0 \pmod{k}$ and $\varepsilon = e^{2\pi i/k}$. Then $S(g)$ becomes $-\log(1 - \varepsilon^j)$ and we obtain (9). To illustrate the former use, consider the example

$$g(1) = g(2) = \dots = g(k-1) = 1, \quad g(k) = 1-k.$$

This gives us the series

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{k-1} + \frac{1-k}{k} + \frac{1}{k+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2k-1} + \frac{1-k}{2k} + \dots \\ = \log k \end{aligned}$$

using (3) and (2). This is a generalization of

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \log 2.$$

A more interesting and conspicuous class of examples of $S(g)$ are the Dirichlet L series $L(s, \chi)$ at $s = 1$ namely

$$L(1, \chi) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\chi(n)}{n}$$

where $\chi(n)$ is a non-principle character modulo k , that is, a non-constant purely multiplicative periodic function of period k which vanishes whenever n and k have a prime factor in common. For n prime to k , $\chi(n)$ is a $\varphi(k)$ -th root of unity, not necessarily primitive. Of particular interest to the theory of quadratic fields are the cases in which k or $-k$ is the discriminant of a monic irreducible quadratic equation, because of the connection between $L(1, \chi)$ and the class number $h(\sqrt{\pm k})$ of the field of that equation. For us this means that the two linear combinations

$$\sum_{r=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{k}{r} \right) \gamma(r, k) \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{r=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{-k}{r} \right) \gamma(r, k),$$

where the symbols are those of Kronecker, can be expressed in terms of $h(\sqrt{\pm k})$. For $k > 1$ the precise formulas are

$$(21) \quad \sum_{r=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{k}{r} \right) \gamma(r, k) = 2 \log \varepsilon_k k^{-1/2} h(\sqrt{k}),$$

$$(22) \quad \sum_{r=1}^{k-1} \left(\frac{-k}{r} \right) \gamma(r, k) = \frac{2\pi}{w} k^{-1/2} h(\sqrt{-k})$$

where $w = 6$ for $k = 3$, $w = 4$ for $k = 4$ and $w = 2$ for all other k and ε_k is the fundamental unit in the real field $Q(\sqrt{k})$.

Thus for $k = 5$, (21) becomes

$$\gamma(1, 5) - \gamma(2, 5) - \gamma(3, 5) + \gamma(4, 5) = 2 \log \left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{+5}}{2} \right) / \sqrt{5}$$

and for $k = 12$, (22) becomes

$$\gamma(1, 12) - \gamma(5, 12) + \gamma(7, 12) - \gamma(11, 12) = \pi / \sqrt{12}$$

since in both cases $h = 1$. These relations are easily verified from our list of $\gamma(r, k)$.

If in (21) and (22) we substitute for $\gamma(r, k)$ from (11) we obtain, after simplification, a pair of class number formulas for positive and negative discriminants.

These are

$$\varepsilon_k^{h(\sqrt{k})} = \frac{\prod_{N=1}^k \sin(\pi N/k)}{\prod_{R=1}^k \sin(\pi R/k)},$$

$$2\sqrt{k}h(\sqrt{-k}) = w \sum_r \left(\frac{-k}{r} \right) \cot(\pi r/k).$$

In the first relation, which is due to Dirichlet [3], N and R range over integers $\leq k/2$ for which $\left(\frac{k}{N}\right) = -1$ and $\left(\frac{k}{R}\right) = +1$. In the second relation, which is due to V. A. Lebesgue [7], r ranges over the positive integers $\leq k/2$.

As a corollary to Theorem 8 we can evaluate a more general sum.

COROLLARY. Let a and b be relatively prime integers with $0 < a < b$ and let $g(n)$ be any numerical function periodic of period k . Then

$$S(g, a, b) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g(n)}{n+a/b} = b \sum_{r=0}^{k-1} g(r) \gamma(br+a, bk)$$

provided $\sum_{r=1}^k g(r) = 0$, which is necessary and sufficient for convergence of $S(g, a, b)$.

Proof. Define $g_1(n)$ by

$$g_1(n) = \begin{cases} bg(n) & \text{if } n \equiv a \pmod{b}, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Now we can apply Theorem 8 with k replaced by bk .

Another type of sum that can be evaluated by $\gamma(r, k)$ is considered in

THEOREM 9. Let $m \geq 2$ and let

$$(r_1, k_1), (r_2, k_2), \dots, (r_m, k_m)$$

be pairs of positive integers for which

$$0 < r_j \leq k_j \quad (j = 1(1)m)$$

and the m rational numbers r_j/k_j are distinct. Finally let $p(x)$ be any polynomial of degree $\leq m-2$, a necessary condition for convergence.

Then

$$S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{p(n)}{(k_1 n + r_1)(k_2 n + r_2) \dots (k_m n + r_m)} = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \left\{ \gamma(r_j, k_j) + \frac{\log k_j}{k_j} \right\}$$

where the coefficients c_j are defined by the partial fraction decomposition

$$(23) \quad \frac{p(x)}{(k_1 x + r_1)(k_2 x + r_2) \dots (k_m x + r_m)} = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{c_j}{k_j x + r_j}.$$

Proof. By (23)

$$p(x) = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \frac{(k_1 x + r_1) \dots (k_m x + r_m)}{k_j x + r_j}.$$

The right hand side is a formal polynomial of degree $m-1$. Hence its leading coefficient must vanish. That is

$$(24) \quad \sum_{j=1}^m c_j / k_j = 0.$$

Again by (23)

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n \leq x} \frac{p(n)}{(k_1 n + r_1) \dots (k_m n + r_m)} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \sum_{0 \leq n \leq x} \frac{1}{k_j n + r_j} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^m c_j H(k_j x, r_j, k_j) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ H(k_j x, r_j, k_j) - \frac{1}{k_j} \log k_j x \right\} + \\ &\quad + \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ (\log x) \sum_{j=1}^m c_j / k_j \right\} + \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{c_j}{k_j} \log k_j \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m c_j \left\{ \gamma(r_j, k_j) + \frac{1}{k_j} \log k_j \right\} \end{aligned}$$

in view of (24). This gives the theorem.

To give a simple illustration consider the sum

$$S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+1)(2n+1)(4n+1)}.$$

Here we have

$$c_1 = \frac{1}{3}, \quad c_2 = -2, \quad c_3 = \frac{8}{3}$$

and so the sum is

$$S = \frac{1}{3}\gamma(1, 1) - 2\{\gamma(1, 2) + \frac{1}{2}\log 2\} + \frac{8}{3}\{\gamma(1, 4) + \frac{1}{4}\log 4\}.$$

This reduces to $\pi/3 = 1.04719755 \dots$

Because of (24), those sums S for which the k_j are all equal will have the value

$$\sum_{j=1}^m c_j \gamma(r_j, k).$$

As an example we may cite the sum

$$S_k = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(kn+1)(kn+2) \dots (kn+k)} = \left(\sum_{r=1}^k (-1)^{r-1} \binom{k-1}{r-1} \gamma(r, k) \right) / (k-1)!$$

For example when $k = 6$ we find

$$S_6 = \{192\log 2 - 81\log 3 - 7\pi\sqrt{3}\}/4320 = .01390480727.$$

The reader will have observed that in all these applications Euler's constant γ cancels out.

7. Numerical evaluation of $\gamma(r, k)$. Formula (11) which gives the exact value of $\gamma(r, k)$ is somewhat unwieldy and expensive for the numerical calculation of $\gamma(r, k)$ especially for large k . If one has access to a good table of $\gamma(1+z)$ such as [1] or [2] one can use the formula of Theorem 7

$$\gamma(r, k) = \frac{1}{r} - \frac{\log k}{k} - \frac{1}{k} \gamma(1+r/k).$$

Alternatively one can use the series (19) instead of a table.

For automatic computing and where greater accuracy is desired one can apply the Euler-Maclaurin summation formula. This method avoids the use of trigonometric functions and allows one to "wholesale" the computation of $\gamma(r, k)$ for k fixed.

If in the Euler-Maclaurin formula

$$\begin{aligned} f(0) + f(1) + \dots + f(N) &= \int_0^N f(t) dt + \frac{1}{2}\{f(N) + f(0)\} + \\ &+ \frac{1}{12}\{f'(N) - f'(0)\} - \frac{1}{720}\{f'''(N) - f'''(0)\} + \\ &+ \frac{1}{30240}\{f^{(5)}(N) - f^{(5)}(0)\} \dots \end{aligned}$$

we set

$$f(t) = (kt+r)^{-1}, \quad kN+r = x$$

we obtain the asymptotic formula

$$(25) \quad \gamma(r, k) = H(x, r, k) - \frac{1}{k} \log x - \frac{1}{2x} + \frac{k}{12x^2} - \frac{k^3}{120x^4} + \frac{k^5}{252x^6} \dots$$

If we choose x near to 1000 and $k < 100$ these six terms alone give an error less than $5 \cdot 10^{-13}$ in absolute value; for small k it is, of course, very much smaller.

For fixed k we can give a polynomial approximation to $\gamma(r, k)$ once the values of $H(1000, r, k)$ have been computed. To this effect coefficients C_i are defined as follows.

$$C_0 = \frac{1}{k} \log 1000 + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 10^3} - \frac{k}{12 \cdot 10^6} + \frac{k^3}{12 \cdot 10^{13}} - \frac{k^5}{252 \cdot 10^{18}},$$

$$C_1 = \frac{1}{k \cdot 10^3} - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 10^6} + \frac{k}{6 \cdot 10^9} - \frac{k^3}{3 \cdot 10^6},$$

$$C_2 = \frac{1}{2k \cdot 10^6} - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 10^9} + \frac{k}{4 \cdot 10^{12}},$$

$$C_3 = \frac{1}{3k \cdot 10^9} - \frac{1}{2 \cdot 10^{12}},$$

$$C_4 = \frac{1}{4k \cdot 10^{12}}.$$

Then from (25)

$$\gamma(r, k) \cong H(1000, r, k) - C_0 + C_1 t + C_2 t^2 + C_3 t^3 + C_4 t^4$$

where

$$t \equiv 1000 - r(\text{mod } k) \quad (0 \leq t < k).$$

Similar polynomials based on other limits than 1000 can be written down from (25) whose general term is $k^{2n-1} B_{2n} x^{-2n}$, B_{2n} being, of course, the Bernoulli number of index $2n$. Such formulas are sometimes useful in case k is large and only a few values of r are involved. Such an occasion is the following question.

Inspection of our modest table of $\gamma(r, k)$ leads one to guess that about half of the $\gamma(r, k)$ are positive. This is in reality far from the truth, as we see from

THEOREM 10. *For large k the monotone sequence*

$$\gamma(1, k), \gamma(2, k), \dots, \gamma(k, k)$$

changes sign in the neighborhood of $r = k/\log k$, so that almost all $\gamma(r, k)$ are negative.

Proof. We shall prove somewhat more. Let $L = \log k - \gamma$.

By Theorem 7 to make $\gamma(r, k) = 0$ we must have

$$\gamma(z) = -\log k, \quad z = r/k$$

or, by (17),

$$(26) \quad z\gamma(1+z) = 1 - z\log k.$$

But by (19)

$$z\gamma(1+z) = -\gamma z + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \zeta(n)(-z)^n.$$

Therefore (26) becomes

$$(27) \quad z = L^{-1}\{1 - \zeta(2)z^2 + \zeta(3)z^3 - \dots\}.$$

Taking only the first term the theorem follows. Solving (27) by iteration we find

$$(28) \quad z = L^{-1} - \zeta(2)L^{-3} + \zeta(3)L^{-4} + [2\{\zeta(2)\}^2 - \zeta(4)]L^{-5} - \\ - [5\zeta(2)\zeta(3) + \zeta(5)]L^{-6} - \dots$$

As an illustration we take $k = 100$. The terms of (28) become

$$.2483 - .0252 + .0046 + .0041 - .0025 = .2292.$$

By actual computation we find

$$\gamma(22, 100) = .00204268,$$

$$\gamma(23, 100) = -.00056747.$$

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On the distribution of additive arithmetic functions

by

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Dedicated to the memory
of Yu. V. Linnik

Let $g(n)$ be a real valued additive arithmetic function (i.e. $g(mn) = g(m) + g(n)$ if $(m, n) = 1$). The distribution of values of such functions has been extensively investigated. As a new direction, Erdős, Ruzsa and Sárközi [1] proposed to estimate

$$(1) \quad \max_{-\infty < a < \infty} N(a, x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max_{-\infty < a < \infty} \sum_{\substack{n \leq x \\ g(n)=a}} 1$$

for general additive functions. They found bounds cx in various cases, often giving the best possible value of c . If, however, $g(n) = \omega(n)$, the number of prime divisors of n , then this quantity is about $\text{const} \frac{x}{\sqrt{\log \log x}}$

they conjectured (oral communication) that this order of magnitude cannot be exceeded in any case, provided that $g(p) \neq 0$ for each prime p . The aim of this paper is to prove this conjecture in the following more precise form.

THEOREM. *Let $g(n)$ be an arbitrary real valued additive function and put*

$$E(x) = \sum_{\substack{p \leq x \\ g(p) \neq 0}} \frac{1}{p}.$$

Then there is a universal constant c_1 such that

$$N(a, x) = \sum_{\substack{n \leq x \\ g(n)=a}} 1 \leq c_1 \frac{x}{\sqrt{E(x)}}.$$

The result is sharp even in this more general form: The bound is attained if $g(p) = 0$ or 1 and $\sum_{p \leq x} 1/p = E(x)$ as is seen from [2] and [3] where

much more detailed information is given in this special case. (For refer-